THE

MONTHLY REPOSITORY,

AND LIBRARY OF

Entertaining Knowledge.

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THE CITY OF BALTIMORE.

The city of Baltimore, of which we have been enabled to enrich our present number with a spirited engraving, now contains 81,000 inhabitants, and ranks in point of elegance and size as the third city in the Union. The rapidity of its growth would in any other country be deemed incredible, for it has risen to its present importance in a single century, having been laid out in the year 1729. Here, however, where it is no uncommon occurrence for the individual who felled the first tree and erected the first log cabin in a settlement, to live to see a stately city grow up about him, it, is hardly sufficient to excite remark and is merely regarded as the natural and every day result of public spirit improving a situation more than commonly favorable for manufacturing and commercial enterprise. The situation of Baltimore is admirably calculated for the prosecution of both these species of industry, and it is accordingly the centre of a large capital employed in both pursuits. Built around a spacious and commodious harbor constantly filled with shipping of all nations, and connected by excellent roads, by navigable streams and by splendid internal improvements, with an immense extent of the richest country in the world, it forms a focus for business of every description, and attracts to itself the whole trade of Maryland, a great portion of that of Pennsylvania, with a large share from Ohio and the other western states. Besides these advantages of situation, it possesses water privileges of

great extent which render it an unrivalled seat for manufacturing establishments requiring hydraulic power. The chemical works are celebrated throughout the United States; its cotton factories are numerous and valuable, and it is the greatest flour market in the world.

Baltimore is well built, the houses being generally of brick, and those recently erected displaying considerable elegance and taste. The newer parts of the city are separated from the old town by a river called Jones' Falls, which is crossed by several beautiful stone bridges. The streets are spacious and well paved; the principal one, called Baltimore or Market street, is a mile long and eighty feet wide, running parallel with the water, and intersected by the other streets at right angles. The inhabitants are blessed with an abundant supply of that first necessary and greatest luxury of life, good water; which is distributed from four public fountains fitted up in a highly ornamental style. Baltimore contains several public institutions, among which we may mention the university of Maryland, whose medical school is one of the most celebrated in the country, and the Catholic college of St. Mary's, a well endowed institution, with a library of 10,000 volumes. There are about 40 places of public worship, of these the Roman Catholic cathedral, St. Paul's church, and the Unitarian church are the most spacious and elegant. The Exchange and the Union Bank are also handsome buildings; the former contains within its walls the Custom House, the United States' Branch Bank, and an extensive coffee house. One of the most interesting objects in Baltimore is the Washington monument, a lofty structure of stone, 50 feet square at the base, and upwards of 160 feet high, on the summit of which the statue of Washington is to be placed. There is also another called the Battle monument, erected to commemorate the attack made on the city during the late war, by the British under General Ross, this is of marble, about thirty-five feet high, and upon its columns are inscribed the names of those who fell in the defence of the city.

The inhabitants of Baltimore, like those of the south-

ern cities in general, are remarkable for their hospitality and polite attention to strangers, so much so that we have seldom met a traveller who visited their city that did not mention them in terms of gratitude and praise. They are still favored by the residence among them of the only surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence, the venerable Charles Carrol of Carrolton whose manor, a short distance from the city is visited by many a votary of liberty, and who furnishes, in the cheerful contentment, the elegant hospitality, and the active virtues that adorn his age, a noble specimen of the worthies that established our land among the nations, and an invaluable example to those whose proud duty it has been to maintain it there.

CIRCLE OF THE SCIENCES, WITH SUITABLE REFLECTIONS.

ASTRONOMICAL SKETCHES—FIXED STARS.

When we pass from the planetary system to other regions of creation, we have to traverse, in imagination, a space so immense, that it has hitherto baffled all the efforts of science to determine its extent. In these remote and immeasurable spaces, are placed those immense luminous bodies usually denominated the *fixed stars.* The nearest stars are, on good grounds, concluded to be at least *twenty billions* of miles distant from our globe—a distance through which *light* (the swiftest body in nature) could not travel in the space of three years; and which a ball, moving at the rate of 500 miles an hour, would not traverse in four millions five hundred thousand years, or 750 times the period which has elapsed since the Mosaic creation. But how far they may be placed beyond this distance, no astronomer will pretend to determine. The following consideration will prove, to those unacquainted with the mathematical principles of astronomy, that the stars are placed at an immeasurable distance. When they are viewed through a telescope which magnifies objects a thousand times, they appear no larger than to the naked eye; which circumstance shows, that though we

were placed at the thousandth part of the distance from them at which we now are, they would still appear only as so many shining *points*; for we should still be distant from the nearest of them, twenty thousand millions of miles: or, in other words, were we transported several thousands of millions of miles from the spot we now occupy, though their numbers would appear exceedingly increased, they would appear no larger than they do from our present station; and we behooved to be carried forward thousands of millions of miles further in a long succession, before their disks appeared to expand into large circles, like the moon. Dr. Herschel viewed the stars with telescopes magnifying *six thousand times*, yet they still appeared only as brilliant points, without any sensible disks or increase of diameter. This circumstance incontestably proves the two following things: 1. That the stars are *luminous bodies*, which shine by their own native light; otherwise they could not be perceived at such vast distances. 2. That they are bodies of an immense size, not inferior to the sun; and many of them, it is probable, far exceed that luminary in bulk and splendor.

The stars on account of the difference in their apparent magnitudes, have been distributed into several classes or orders. Those which appear largest are called stars of the *first* magnitude; next to those in lustre, stars of the *second* magnitude, and so on to stars of the *sixth* magnitude, which are the smallest that can be distinguished by the naked eye. Stars of the 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, &c. magnitudes, which cannot be seen by the naked eye, are distinguished by the name of *telescopic* stars. Not more than a thousand stars can be distinguished by the naked eye, in the clearest winter's night; but by means of the telescope, millions have been discovered. And, as it is probable, that, by far the greater part lie beyond the reach of the best glasses which have been, or ever will be constructed by man—the real number of the stars may be presumed to be beyond all human calculation or conception, and perhaps beyond the grasp of angelic comprehension.

In consequence of recent discoveries, we have now the strongest reason to believe, that all the stars in

the universe are arranged into clusters, of groups, which astronomers distinguish by the name of NEBULÆ, or STARRY SYSTEMS, each nebulæ consisting of many thousands of stars. The nearest nebulæ is that whitish space or zone which is known by the name of the *Milky Way*, to which our sun is supposed to belong. It consists of many hundreds of thousands of stars. When Dr. Herschel examined this region, with his powerful telescopes, he found a portion of it only fifteen degrees long, and two broad, which contained *fifty thousand* stars large enough to be distinctly counted; and he suspected twice as many more which, for want of sufficient light in his telescope, he saw only now and then. More than two thousand five hundred nebulæ have already been observed; and if each of them contain as many stars as the Milky Way, several hundreds of millions of stars must exist, even within that portion of the heavens which lies open to our observation.

It appears, from numerous observations that *various changes* are occasionally taking place in the regions of the stars. Several stars have appeared for a while in the heavens, and then vanished from the sight. Some stars which were known to the ancients, cannot now be discovered; and stars are now distinctly visible, which were to them unknown. A few stars have gradually increased in brilliancy, while others have been constantly diminishing in lustre. Certain stars, to the number of 15, or upwards, are ascertained to have a periodical increase and decrease of their lustre, sometimes appearing like stars of the 1st or 2d magnitude, sometimes diminishing to the size of the 4th or 5th magnitude, and sometimes altogether disappearing to the naked eye. It also appears, that changes are taking place among the Nebulæ—that several nebulæ are formed by the decomposition of larger nebulæ, and that many nebulæ of this kind are at present detaching themselves from the nebulæ of the Milky Way. These changes seem to indicate, that mighty movements and vast operations are continually going on in the distant regions of creation, under the superintendence of the Sovereign of the Universe, upon a scale of magni-

tude and grandeur which overwhelms the human understanding.

To explore, more extensively, the region of the starry firmament; to mark the changes that are taking place: to ascertain all the changeable stars; to determine the periodical variations of their light; the revolutions of double and triple stars; and the motions, and other phenomena peculiar to these great bodies, will furnish employment for future enlightened generations: and will perhaps, form a part of the studies and investigations of superior intelligences, in a higher sphere of existence, during an indefinite lapse of ages.

If every one of these immense bodies be a SUN, equal or superior to ours, and encircled with a host of planetary worlds, as we have every reason to conclude, how vast must be the extent of Creation! how numerous the worlds and beings which exist within its boundless range! and how great, beyond all human or angelic conception, must be the Power and Intelligence of that glorious Being, who called this system from nothing into existence, and continually superintends all its movements! The mind is bewildered and confounded when it attempts to dwell on this subject; it feels the narrow limits of its present faculties; it longs for the powers of a seraph, to enable it to take a more expansive flight into those regions which "eye hath not seen;" and, while destitute of these, and chained down to this obscure corner of creation, it can only exclaim, in the language of inspiration, "Who can by searching find out God?—Great is our Lord, and of great power: his understanding is infinite!—Great and marvellous are thy works, Lord God Almighty!—Who can utter the mighty acts of Jehovah, who can show forth *all* his praise!"

(*To be continued.*)

ADVERSITY.

Adversity has ever been considered as the state in which a man most easily becomes acquainted with himself; and this effect it must produce, by withdrawing flatterers, whose business it is to hide our weak-

nesses from us; or by giving loose to malice, and license to reproach; or at least, by cutting off those pleasures which call us away from meditation on our own conduct, and repressing that pride which too easily persuades us that we merit whatever we enjoy.

HISTORICAL AND PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE HOLY LAND—No. VII.

LAKES, SEAS, &c.

Of the LAKES mentioned in the Scriptures, two are particularly worthy of notice; that of Gennesareth, and the lake of Sodom, both of which are termed seas agreeably to the Hebrew phraseology, which gives the name of sea to any large body of water.

The SEA OF GALILEE, through which the Jordan flows, was anciently called the Sea of Chinnereth (Numb. xxxiv. 11,) or Cinneroth (Josh. xii. 3.) from its vicinity to the town of that name; afterwards Genesar (1 Mac. xi. 67.), and in the time of Jesus Christ Genesareth or Gennezareth (Luke v. 1.), from the neighbouring land of the same name (Matt. xiv. 34. Mark xv. 53.); and also the sea of Tiberias (John vi. 1. xxi. 1.), from the contiguous city of Tiberias. The waters of this lake are very sweet, and abound with fish; this circumstance marks the propriety of our Lord's parable of the net cast into the sea (Matt. xiii. 47—49.), near the shore. Pliny states this lake to be sixteen miles in length by six miles in breadth. Dr. D. E. Clarke, by whom it was visited rather more than twenty years since, describes it as longer and finer than the Cumberland and Westmoreland lakes, although it yields in majesty to the stupendous features of Loch Lomond in Scotland: like the Windemere, the lake of Gennezareth is often greatly agitated by winds. (Matt. viii. 23—27.)

The LAKE OR SEA OF SODOM, or the DEAD SEA, is about 72 English miles in length, and nearly 19 in breadth. It was anciently called in the Scriptures the *Sea of the Plain* (Deut. iii. 17. iv. 49.), being situated in a valley with a plain lying to the south of it; the *Salt Sea* (Deut. iii. 17. Josh. xv. 5.), from the ex-

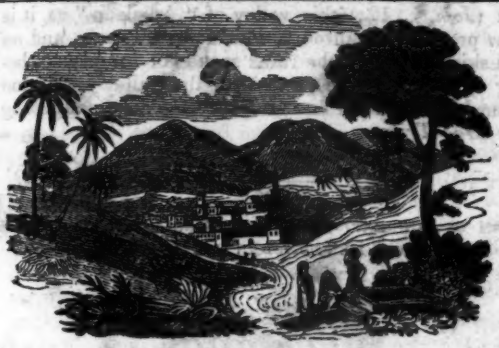
tremely saline, bitter, and nauseous taste of its waters; the *Salt Sea eastward* (Numb. xxxiv. 3.) and the *East Sea* (Ezek. xlvii. 18. Joel ii. 20.) By Josephus and other writers it is called the lake *Asphaltites*, from the abundance of bitumen found in it; and also the *Dead Sea*, from ancient traditions, erroneously though generally received, that no living creature can exist in its stagnant and sulphureous waters. Here formerly stood the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah, which, with two other cities of the plain, were consumed by fire from heaven: to this destruction there are numerous allusions in the Scriptures.

Beside the preceding rivers and lakes, the Scriptures mention several *Fountains* and *Wells:* of these the most remarkable are the fountain or pool of Siloam and Jacob's Well.

Siloam was a fountain under the walls of Jerusalem, east, between the city and the brook Kedron: it is supposed to be the same as the fountain En-Rogel, or the Fuller's Fountain. (Josh. xv. 7. and xviii. 16. 2 Sam. xvii. 17. and 1 Kings i. 9.) "The spring issues from a rock, and runs in a silent stream, according to the testimony of Jeremiah."

Jacob's Well or fountain is situated at a small distance from Sichem or Shechem, also called Sychar, and at present Napolose: it was the residence of Jacob before his sons slew the Shechemites. It has been visited by pilgrims of all ages, but especially by Christians, to whom it has become an object of veneration from the memorable discourse of our Saviour with the woman of Samaria. (John iv. 5—30.)

In our own time it is the custom for the oriental women, particularly those who are unmarried, to fetch water from the wells, in the mornings and evenings; at which times they go forth adorned with their trinkets. This will account for Rebecca's fetching water (Gen. xxiv. 15,) and will farther prove that there was no impropriety in Abraham's servant presenting her with more valuable jewels than those she had before on her hands. (Gen. xxiv. 22—47.)



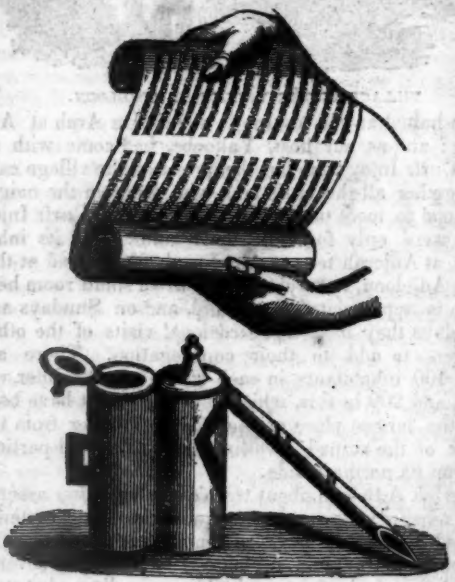
VILLAGE IN THE VALLEY OF ADJELOON.

We halted at the house of a christian Arab at Adjeloon; and as our host, Yakoobe, had come with us from Curfr Injey thus far, the priest of the village called together all the christians who were in the neighbourhood to meet us. It appeared that at Curfr Injey there were only four christians among all its inhabitants, at Anjerah ten, at Ain-Jerrah fifteen, and at this place, Adjeloon, twenty. They have a small room here which is appropriated to worship, and on Sundays and feast days they have the occasional visits of the other villagers to add to their congregation. There are about 400 inhabitants in each of the three former villages, and 200 in this, which, however, must have been once the largest place of the whole, judging from the extent of the ruined dwellings around it, and particularly on its northern side.

We left Adjeloon about ten o'clock, and after ascending a narrow valley to the northward, inclining easterly, entered into a fine forest of sinjan trees, where, after an hour's journeying, we passed over a spot covered with the vestiges of former buildings, walls, and streets, though now entirely overgrown with shrubs and trees. This spot is called by the people of the country Belled-el-Yosh, or the country or place of Joshua, probably referring to that leader's bidding the sun to stand still upon Gibeon, and the moon in the valley of Aja-

lon (*Josh.* x. 12;) this valley of "Adjeloon," as it is now pronounced, through which we had come, and on the skirts of which the ruins spoken of are placed, being undoubtedly the same with the valley of Ajalon named in the scriptures.—*Buckingham's Travels among the Arab Tribes.*

FORM OF ANCIENT BOOKS AND SCROLLS, PARTICULARLY THOSE MENTIONED IN THE SCRIPTURE.



We present our readers with the form of an ancient book, as held with both hands by a young man, who is supposed to be reading it with great earnestness. It is probably meant for some serious treatise. The form of the page, and the direction of the separating column

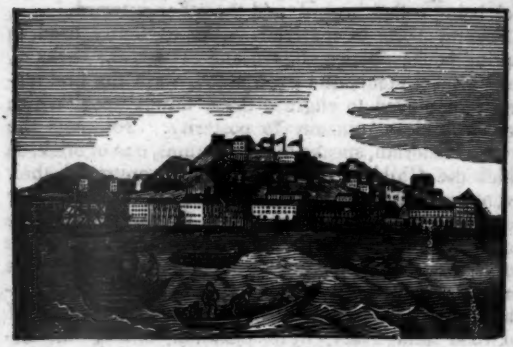
are distinctly marked, and clearly show that it was read down the narrow way of the roll, one end of the book being rolled inward and the other outward.

Several sorts of materials were anciently used in making books; plates of lead and copper, the barks of trees, bricks, stone, and even wood, were the first materials employed to engrave those things upon, which men desired to transmit to posterity. Josephus the Jewish Historian, speaks of two columns, one of brick, on which the Children of Seth wrote, or engraved their inventions and astronomical discoveries. Porphyry mentions some pillars preserved in Crete, on which the sacrifices of the Corybanites were recorded. Hesiod's works were originally written upon tables of lead; the Laws of Solon upon wooden planks; and the Ten Commandments delivered to Moses, upon stone. Tables of boxwood and ivory were common among the ancients; and their wooden tablets were frequently covered with wax, that they might easily write, and if they pleased afterwards erase what they had written. The leaves of the palm-tree were afterwards used instead of wooden tablets, together with the finest and thinnest part of the bark of trees, such as the lime, the ash, the maple, and the elm; and as these barks were rolled up in order to be removed with greater ease, the rolls were called *volumina*, or volumes, a name afterwards generally applied to rolls of paper or parchment.

The other two figures represent an ancient inkstand and pen. The inkstand consists of two parts, one for red, and the other for black ink; one of which is shut, and the other open. The pen is a reed of considerable length and magnitude. Whether the bands round it are merely joints of the reed, or something added to strengthen it, is not certain, but probably the latter; and the reader should be informed, that these representations are copied from some ancient pictures dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a once famous city of Italy, which was destroyed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, A. D. 79.

The hypocrite shows the excellency of virtue by the necessity he thinks himself under of *seeming to be virtuous.*

TOPOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.—No. II.



LISBON.

This city, the capital of the kingdom of Portugal and the chief residence of the royal house of Braganza, when seen from the harbor is one of the most magnificent objects that can be imagined, situated near the mouth of the Tagus, that noble river

"Which Poets vainly pave with sands of gold,"

embellishing its banks for miles with thousands of romantic villas, and crowning with palaces and convents, intermixed with evergreen oaks, and cork, and orange trees, the summits of the seven hills on which, like ancient Rome, it is erected. Lisbon exhibits from the sea an appearance truly superb. But any expectations of magnificence or even of cleanliness and comfort which the traveller may have founded on a distant view, are doomed to meet with a speedy disappointment;

"For whoso entereth within this town
That, sheening far, celestial seems to be,
Disconsolate will wander up and down,
'Mid many things unsightly to strange ee;
For hut and palace show like filthily:—

so sang Childe Harold; and all who, like him, have enjoyed the prospect of this city from the harbor have spoken with rapture of its beauty, as all who have en-

tered it have expressed the same disgust at its filth and the meanness of its narrow and ill paved streets. Pryse Gordon, in his personal memoirs, even goes so far as to call it the "vilest and filthiest dog kennel in the christian world"—But bad as the condition of Lisbon is in this respect, even now, it is much superior to what it formerly was, the greater part of the city having been rebuilt since the year 1755, when it was reduced, by the great earthquake, to a heap of ruins. The western side in particular, which suffered most severely, has been greatly improved, the streets being straighter and more regularly laid out; but the eastern part preserves its original gloomy aspect, with the same dark and crooked streets and the same old fashioned heavy buildings, six and seven stories high, looking like prisons, with their unsightly balconies and massive iron lattices. There are in Lisbon some handsome squares; the Rossio, where the *autos da fe* were formerly held is the finest; this square forms the point of union for ten different streets and is surrounded by spacious buildings, among which is the new palace of the inquisition. The city is supplied with water by a noble aqueduct 7 miles in length, which crosses the valley of Alcantara on 35 marble arches: this structure withstood the shock of the earthquake, although it is so lofty that a ship of the line might pass under its centre arch with ease. The harbor of Lisbon is one of the finest in the world, it has water for the largest ships and abundant room for 10,000 sail. Among a people degraded by superstition like the Portuguese, science and literature as might be expected, are almost totally neglected; and accordingly although there are several establishments for their cultivation in Lisbon, they are poorly endowed and worse attended. The charitable institutions are more worthy of our notice; among these are the great hospital which is obliged to receive all persons without distinction of degree, nation or religion; St Joseph's hospital which will accomodate 16,000 patients, the foundling hospital where 1600 children are annually received, and the hospital at the village of Belem for decayed gentleman who have served the King.

Lisbon has been since the reign of King Emmanuel, the capital of the kingdom and the centre of its com-

merce, and of course it derived immediate benefit from the splendid discoveries which opened to the countrymen of the early Portuguese navigators such incalculable sources of wealth. These discoveries it is well known were secured to the crown by a bull of donation from the famous Pope Alexander VI. in requital of which favor the successive monarchs of Portugal have devoted a great part of their riches to the service of the church, by embellishing their capital with convents, chapels and other religious edifices. Before the earthquake the number of establishmets for the accommodation of monks and nuns amounted to fifty, and there were besides a great many chapels and churches of extraordinary magnificence. All of these were destroyed. There are still, however, several beautiful churches, some of which are by far the finest buildings erected since the earthquake. The cathredal or Patriarchal church is a vast edifice in the Gothic style, rather heavy and clumsy in its architecture, but splendidly adorned within, and containing many treasures of inestimable value. It is erected in an elevated situation and commands a fine view of the surrounding country! The ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the whole city is lodged in the hands of a Patriarch who was appointed in 1717, and who is assisted in his duties by an archbishop. The civil government is lodged in a council composed of a President, six counsellors and several inferior officers; but these are mere puppets in the hand of the King, who in his turn is managed by the priests, and the whole system is in fact an ecclesiastical despotism of the worst description. The people are said to manifest in their deportment all the vices to be expected from men groaning under such a heavy rule, and to be treacherous, cowardly and cruel. And such is the ignorance in which they are kept that it is no uncommon thing even for Ladies of the better order to be unable to read. May we not hope that the present crisis in the affairs of Portugal may lead to a happy change and that the light of liberty now beginning to burst with mid-day splendor in other parts of the old world may shed on her enthralled sons some of its beneficent rays. The present population of Lisbon is about 200,000

THE PURSUIT OF KNOWLEDGE UNDER DIFFICULTIES;

ILLUSTRATED BY ANECDOTES.

Self-educated men.—Ferguson.—Influence of accident in directing pursuits.

(*Continued from page* 5.)

From this person Ferguson received instructions in Decimal Fractions and Algebra, having already made himself master of Vulgar Arithmetic, by the assistance of books. Just as he was about, however, to begin Geometry, Cantley left his place for another in the establishment of the Earl of Fife, and his pupil thereupon determined to return home to his father.

Cantley, on parting with him, had made him a present of a copy of Gordon's Geographical Grammar. The book contains a description of an artificial globe, which is not however, illustrated by any figure. Nevertheless, "from this description," says Ferguson, "I made a globe in three weeks at my father's, having turned the ball thereof out of a piece of wood; which ball I covered with paper, and delineated a map of the world upon it; made the meridian ring and horizon of wood, covered them with paper, and graduated them; and was happy to find that by my globe (which was the first I ever saw) I could solve the problems."

For some time after this, he was very unfortunate. Finding that it would not do to remain idle at home, he engaged in the service of a miller in the neighbourhood, who, feeling probably that he could trust to the honesty and capacity of his servant, soon began to spend all his own time in the alehouse, and to leave poor Ferguson at home, not only with every thing to do, but with very frequently nothing to eat. A little oatmeal, mixed with cold water, was often, he tells us, all he was allowed. Yet in this situation he remained a year, and then returned to his father's very much the weaker for his fasting. His next master was a Dr. Young, who having induced him to enter his service by a promise to instruct him in medicine, not only broke his engagement as to this point, but used him in other respects so tyrannically, that, although engaged for half a year, he found he could not remain beyond the first quarter, at the expiration of which, accordingly, he came away without receiving any wages, having

"wrought for the last fortnight," says he, "as much as possible with one hand and arm, when I could not lift the other from my side." This was in consequence of a severe hurt he had received, which the Doctor was too busy to look to, and by which he was confined to his bed for two months after his return home.

Reduced as he was, however, by exhaustion and actual pain, he could not be idle. "In order," says he, "to amuse myself in this low state, I made a wooden clock, the frame of which was also of wood, and it kept time pretty well. The bell on which the hammer struck the hours was the neck of a broken bottle." A short time after this, when he had recovered his health, he gave a still more extraordinary proof of his ingenuity, and the fertility of his resources for mechanical invention, by actually constructing a timepiece or watch, moved by a spring. But we must allow him to give the history of this matter in his own words:—

"Having then," he says, "no idea how any timepiece could go but by a weight and a line, I wondered how a watch could go in all positions; and was sorry that I had never thought of asking Mr. Cantley, who could very easily have informed me. But happening one day to see a gentleman ride by my father's house (which was close by a public road), I asked him what o'clock it then was? He looked at his watch, and told me. As he did that with so much good-nature, I begged of him to show me the inside of his watch; and though he was an entire stranger, he immediately opened the watch, and put it into my hands. I saw the spring box, with part of the chain round it; and asked him what it was that made the box turn round? He told me that it was turned round by a steel spring within it. Having then never seen any other spring than that of my father's gun-lock, I asked how a spring within a box could turn the box so often round as to wind all the chain upon it? He answered, that the spring was long and thin; that one end of it was fastened to the axis of the box, and the other end to the inside of the box; that the axis was fixed, and the box was loose upon it. I told him that I did not yet thoroughly understand the matter. 'Well, my lad,'

says he, 'take a long, thin piece of whalebone; hold one end of it fast between your finger and thumb and wind it round your finger, it will then endeavour to unwind itself; and if you fix the other end of it to the inside of a small hoop, and leave it to itself, it will turn the hoop round and round, and wind up a thread tied to the outside of the hoop.' I thanked the gentleman, and told him that I understood the thing very well. I then tried to make a watch with wooden wheels, and made the spring of whalebone; but found that I could not make the wheel go when the balance was put on, because the teeth of the wheels were rather too weak to bear the force of a spring sufficient to move the balance; although the wheels would run fast enough when the balance was taken off. I inclosed the whole in a wooden case, very little bigger than a breakfast tea-cup; but a clumsy neighbor one day looking at my watch, happened to let it fall, and turning hastily about to pick it up, set his foot upon it, and crushed it all to pieces; which so provoked my father, that he was almost ready to beat the man, and discouraged me so much, that I never attempted to make such another machine again, especially as I was thoroughly convinced I could never make one that would be of any real use."

What a vivid picture is this of an ingenuous mind thirsting for knowledge! and who is there, too, that does not envy the pleasure that must have been felt by the courteous and intelligent stranger by whom the young mechanician was carried over his first great difficulty, if he ever chanced to learn how greatly his unknown questioner had profited from their brief interview! That stranger might probably have read the above narrative, as given to the world by Ferguson, after the talents which this little incident probably contributed to develope had raised him from his obscurity to a distinguished place among the philosophers of his age; and if he did know this, he must have felt that encouragement in well-doing which a benevolent man may always gather, either from the positive effects of acts of kindness upon others, or their influence upon his own heart. Civility, charity, generosity, may sometimes meet an ill return, but one person *must* be benefited by

their exercise; the kind heart has its own abundant reward, whatever be the gratitude of others. The case of Ferguson shows that the seed does not always fall on stony ground. It may appear somewhat absurd to dwell upon the benefit of a slight civility which cost, at most, but a few minutes of attention; but it is really important that those who are easy in the world—who have all the advantages of wealth and knowledge at their command—should feel of how much value is the slightest encouragement and assistance to those who are toiling up the steep of emulation. Too often "the scoff of pride" is superadded to the "bar of poverty;" and thus it is that many a one of the best talents and the most generous feelings

"Has sunk into the grave unpitied and unknown,"

because the wealthy and powerful have never understood the value of a helping hand to him who is struggling with fortune.

DEPARTMENT OF NATURAL HISTORY.

THE UNICORN.

In investigating the natural history of the scriptures we find it difficult to identify some of the animals there described with any of those which are now known

upon the earth. Behemoth and leviathan "hugest of living creatures," have afforded employment to a host of learned men, some of whom, especially the Jewish Rabbins and early Christian writers, have indulged in speculations sufficiently fanciful, and furnished amusing examples of the extravagance into which the gravest minds will run when judgment surrenders the reins to imagination. Of all the animals whose names we meet in holy writ there is none about which a greater variety of opinions has been entertained than the unicorn. Numerous animals have, each in turn, been taken for it, and the claims of each have been supported by able advocates. It would serve no useful purpose, nor would our limits permit us to detail the arguments by which the various opinions in favor of the wild goat, the wild bull, the wild ass, the antelope, the deer and the rhinoceros have been sustained; suffice it to say that the last of these is now generally admitted to combine all the qualities assigned to the unicorn in the different passages in which that animal is mentioned in the Bible. The chief characteristics of the rhinoceros, says an eminent naturalist, "are rage, untameableness and strength," all which properties we will find the unicorn to possess. To the rage or ferocity of the animal we find the following testimony in Isaiah, "and the unicorns shall come down with them, and the bullocks with the bulls; and their land shall be soaked with blood, and their dust made fat with fatness." His untameable disposition is thus alluded to by Job: "Will the unicorn be willing to serve thee, or abide by thy crib? canst thou bind the unicorn with his band in the furrow? or will he harrow the valleys after thee? wilt thou trust him because his strength is great? or wilt thou leave thy labor to him? wilt thou believe him that he will bring home thy seed, and gather it into thy barn?"—In another place his strength is described as so great that the strength of the Lord is likened to it. Thus in the reply of Balaam to Balak when the terrified king besought him to curse the invading armies of Israel, we are told, "God brought them out of Egypt, he hath as it were the strength of a unicorn."

A remarkable peculiarity in the rhinoceros is that it possesses a single horn which is situated upon the front of the head in an erect posture, therein differing from other animals whose horns project in a direction more or less approaching to parallelism with the bone. This peculiarity is alluded to in the Bible. "My horn shalt thou exalt like the horn of a unicorn." But there is a species of rhinoceros distinguished by the possession of two horns, and it is evident from the following passage that the unicorn also was sometimes found with more horns than one; "His horns are like the horns of a unicorn,"

The name of the rhinoceros is a Greek word, yet we have reason to believe that the animal was totally unknown to the ancient Greeks, as no mention of it occurs in Aristotle, and it was not described by any Greek before the time of Strabo. It would appear, however, from the description, that the oryx or Indian ass of Aristotle was identical with the rhinoceros; his informers, for he never saw the animal himself, comparing it to the ass from the clumsiness of its shape. It probably did not inhabit that part of India into which Alexander penetrated, as it was nearly 300 years after, that Pompey first introduced the animal into Europe. From his time until that of Heliogabalus they were frequently exhibited in the Roman spectacles; we find the figure of the rhinoceros among the animals of the Prænestine pavement, and we are told that Augustus introduced them into his show in his triumph over Cleopatra. They have frequently been transported to Europe in modern times, but were scarcely better known than the fabled unicorn of the poet and the painter, until some arrived in London in 1739, the careful examination of which discovered and corrected many prevalent errors and misconceptions. They have been recently exhibited in the caravans in our own country and are so generally known that a minute description may be deemed superfluous. The rhinoceros is usually about twelve feet long from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail; from six to seven feet high; and the circumference of its body is nearly equal to its length. It is therefore equal to the elephant in bulk,

and the reason of its appearing so much smaller to the eye than that animal, is that its legs are much shorter. But for its horn its head would very much resemble that of a hog. Its skin is naked, rough, knotty and lying upon the body in folds in a very peculiar manner; if we run the fingers under one of these folds it feels like a board half an inch thick, but between the folds the skin is as smooth and soft as silk. The skin of the folds is of a brown color and is so hard that it will turn the edge of a scimitar. They do not congregate like the elephants, but lead a solitary savage life and are very hard to hunt, for though harmless except when attacked they are then furious and formidable; sabres, lances and javelins have no effect upon them, and their skin will even resist a musket ball, the only penetrable parts being the ears and the spot immediately below the eyes. They are frequently killed while asleep for the sake of the flesh which is much relished by the Indians, Africans and Hottentots.

Bruce informs us that the Rhinoceros lives entirely upon trees, these he first strips and then placing his snout as low in the trunk as he finds the horn will enter, he rips up the body of the tree and reduces it to thin pieces, he then takes as much of it as he can in his monstrous jaws and twists it with as much ease as an ox would do a root of celery. His horn is also a formidable weapon in war; the elephant, the boar and the buffalo are obliged to strike transversely, with their weapons; but the Rhinoceros, from the situation of his horn, employs all his force with every blow, so that the tiger will more willingly attack any other animal of the forest than one whose strength is so justly employed. Indeed there is no force which this terrible animal need apprehend; defended on every side by a thick horny hide which the claws of the lion or the tiger are unable to pierce, and armed before with a weapon that even the elephant does not choose to oppose. Travellers have assured us that the elephant is often found dead in the forests, pierced with the horn of a Rhinoceros.

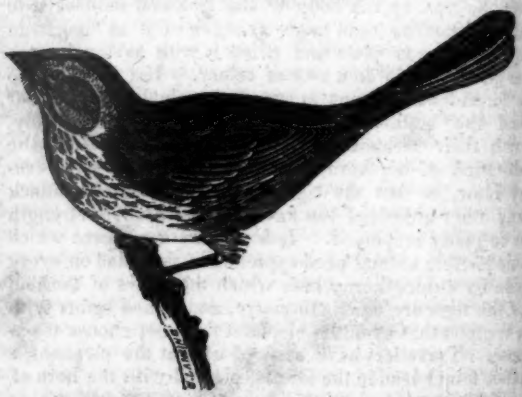
July 1, 1832.

THE SONG SPARROW AND THE BAY-WINGED BUNTING.

The house sparrow of Europe has an upopular character. In some places, a price has been offered for its extirpation, and BUFFON *sums up* in the following style: "It is extremely destructive, its plumage is entirely useless, its flesh indifferent food, its notes grating to the ear, and its familiarity and petulance disgusting."

No share of this odium, however, ought to be extended to *American* sparrows, for I know of no birds more deserving of our regard and protection. Their interests and ours never interfere; indeed most of their labors conduce to our benefit; and their music though overpowered by the stronger notes of *the thrush* and of *the robin*, is always pleasing when it can be heard without interruption.

Of this family, the song sparrow is decidedly the finest. He visits us earlier in Spring than any other migratory songster, and sings to us for several weeks almost without a competitor. The same notes are repeated many times in succession; he then changes and repeats others in the same manner.



In the above figure, a diminished copy of WILSON's, *the dark spot* on the breast, which so frequently oc-

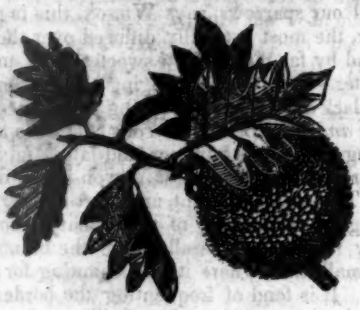
curs, is not represented; neither does the figure represent it in the attitude of song.

"Of all our sparrows, says WILSON, this is the most numerous, the most generally diffused over the United States, and by far the earliest, sweetest, and most lasting songster.—It is the first singing bird in Spring, except the black capt Titmouse, taking precedence even of the *Pewee and Blue Bird.* Its song continues occasionally during the whole summer and fall; and is sometimes heard (near Philadelphia,) even in the depth of winter. The notes, or chant, are short but very sweet, resembling the beginning of the Canary's song, and frequently repeated, generally from the branches of a bush or small tree, where it sits chanting for an hour together. It is fond of frequenting the borders of rivers, meadows, swamps, and such-like watery places; and if wounded, and unable to fly, will readily take to the water, and swim with considerable rapidity. "The great cypress swamps of the Southern States appear to be the grand winter rendezvous of almost all our sparrows"

THE BAY-WINGED BUNTING

resembles a sparrow both in manners and appearance. When flying it is readily known by two outside white feathers in its tail. Though not gregarious, they appear in considerable numbers along the road, and we suspect they are fond of rolling in the dust. The notes are rather louder but less musical than the song sparrow; and in the morning and evening their vivacity seems to be increased by the emulation of numbers.

"This bird says WILSON delights in frequenting grass and clover fields, perches on the tops of the fences, singing from the middle of April to the beginning of July with a clear and pleasant note, in which particular it far excels its European relation. They frequent the middle of fields more than hedges; run along the ground like a lark, which they also resemble in the great breadth of their wings; they are timid birds; and rarely approach the farm-house."



THE BREAD FRUIT—*Artocarpus incisa.*

The bread-fruit, originally found in the south-eastern parts of Asia and the islands of the Pacific, though now introduced into the tropical parts of the western continent, and the West India islands, is one of the most interesting, as well as singular productions of the vegetable kingdom. There are two species of it: the bread fruit properly so called (*Artocarpus incisa,*) with the leaves deeply gashed or divided at the sides, which grows chiefly in the islands; and the Jack fruit, or Jaca tree (*Artocarpus integrifolia*), with the leaves entire which grows chiefly on the main land of Asia. The latter has been already noticed.

The bread-fruit is a beautiful as well as a useful tree: the trunk rises to the height of about forty feet, and, in a full grown tree, is from a foot to fifteen inches in diameter; the bark is ash-coloured, full of little chinks, and covered by small knobs; the inner bark is fibrous, and used in the manufacture of a sort of cloth; and the wood is smooth, soft, and of a yellow color. The branches come out in a horizontal manner, the lowest ones about ten or twelve feet from the ground; and they become shorter and shorter as they are nearer the top; the leaves are divided into seven or nine lobes, about eighteen inches or two

feet long, and are of a lively green. The tree bears male and female flowers, the males among the upper leaves, and the females at the extremities of the twigs. When full grown, the fruit is about nine inches long, heart-shaped, of a greenish color, and marked with hexagonal warts, formed into facets. The pulp is white, partly farinaceous and partly fibrous; but when quite ripe, it becomes yellow and juicy. The whole tree, when in a green state, abounds with a viscid milky juice, of so tenacious a nature as to be drawn out in threads.

In the island of Otaheite and other places, where the bread-fruit forms the chief support of the people, there are, as is the case with cultivated vegetables in all countries, many varieties; only two, however, are very different from each other—that which contains seeds in the fruit, and that which contains none. The variety with seeds is much inferior to the other, being more fibrous, containing less farina, and not so pleasant to the taste; it is, therefore, not cultivated, though in cases of need, it is roasted and eaten. Whether the seedless sort has been produced wholly by cultivation it is not easy, and would not be of much importance, to ascertain: it is the one cultivated in the South Sea islands; it was originally found only there; and the tree was not in much repute till these islands were discovered.

The bread-fruit continues productive for about eight months of the year: such is its abundance, that two or three trees will suffice for a man's yearly supply, a store being made into a sour paste, called *mahe* in the islands, which is eaten during the unproductive season. The planting of the seedless variety is now saved, as the creeping roots send up suckers which soon grow to trees. When the fruit is roasted till the outside is charred, the pulp has a consitency not very unlike that of wheaten bread; and the taste is intermediate between that of bread and roasted chesnuts. It is said to be very nourishing, and is prepared in various ways. The timber of the bread-fruit, though soft, is found useful in the construction of houses and boats; the male flowers, dried, serve for tinder; the juice answers for bird-lime and glue; the leaves for packing and for

towels; and the inner bark, beaten together, makes one species of the South Sea cloth.

The earliest account of the bread-fruit is by Captain Dampier, in 1688. "The bread-fruit," says this navigator, "grows on a large tree, as big and high as our largest apple trees; it hath a spreading head, full of branches, and dark leaves. The fruit grows on the boughs like apples; it is as big as a penny loaf, when wheat is at five shillings the bushel; it is of a round shape, and hath a thick tough rind. When the fruit is ripe, it is yellow and soft, and the taste is sweet and pleasant. The natives of Guam use it for bread. They gather it when full grown, while it is green and hard; then they bake it in an oven which scorcheth the rind, and maketh it black; but they scrape off the outside black crust, and there remains a tender thin crust, and the inside is soft, tender, and white, like the crumb of a penny loaf. There is *neither seed nor stone* in the inside, but all of a pure substance, like bread. It must be eaten new, for, if it be kept above twenty-four hours, it grows harsh and choky, but it is very pleasant before it is too stale. This fruit lasts in season *eight months* in the year, during which the natives eat no other sort of bread kind. I did never see of this fruit anywhere but here. The natives told us, that there is plenty of this fruit growing on the rest of the Ladrone Islands; and I did never hear of it anywhere else."

The scientific men who accompanied Captain Cook in his voyages, came home with the most enthusiastic ideas of the bread-fruit. Dr. Solander calls it "the most useful vegetable in the world," and urges that no expense should be spared in its cultivation. The mere idea of bread, the most valuable food of man, growing spontaneously, was doubtless calculated to excite attention—almost, perhaps, as strongly as the subsequent description of a poet:—

"The bread-tree, which, without the ploughshare, yields
The unreap'd harvest of unfurrow'd fields,
And bakes its unadulterated loaves
Without a furnace in unpurchased groves
And flings off famine from its fertile breast,
A priceless market for the gathering guest."

A tree, of the value and easy culture of which so very encouraging accounts were given, could not but attract the notice of the public generally, and more especially of those colonists of Great Britain who lived in a climate warm enough for its cultivation. An application to be furnished with plants of the bread-fruit tree was accordingly made to his late Majesty by the planters and others interested in the West Indies, and it met with a favorable reception. The Bounty, a vessel of about two hundred and fifteen tons burthen, was fitted up for a voyage to Otaheite. Lieutenant (afterwards Admiral) Bligh, who had accompanied Cook on his last voyage, and shown himself an officer of great talents, enterprise, and bravery, was appointed to the command. In addition to the crew of the vessel, two men were appointed, at the recommendation of Sir Joseph Banks, to take immediate charge of the procuring, shipping and tending of the plants.

The Bounty was skilfully fitted up for her intended purpose. A large cabin between decks, in midships, was prepared for the reception of the plants. This had two large skylights on the top for light; three scuttles on each side for ventilation of air, and a double bottom; an upper one of timber on which to place the pots and tubs containing the plants, which was drilled full of holes to allow escape to the superfluous water which might have injured them by stagnation—and a leaden one upon the lower deck, in which the water that ran through the other was collected, and from which it was conducted by a leaden pipe at each corner, into casks below for future use.

Thus prepared, the vessel put to sea about the middle of November, 1787, but was beat about and baffled by contrary winds, so that the voyage was not commenced till the 23d of December. The instructions given to Lieutenant Bligh were full and explicit. He was to resort to those places in the Society Isles where Captain Cook had stated that the bread-fruit tree was to be found in the greatest luxuriance, and there procure as many plants as the vessel could carry; after which he was to proceed with them to the West Indies with all possible expedition.

The commander sailed first for Teneriffe, and thence for the south of America, intending to enter the Pacific by the passage of Cape Horn. But the storms of that inhospitable region beat him back; and he was forced to bear away for the Cape of Good Hope, and reach the Society Islands on the side of New Holland. This voyage, which had occupied ten months, terminated on the 25th of October, by the arrival of the Bounty at Otaheite.

No time was lost in putting the instructions into execution. The young shoots that sprung from the lateral roots of the bread-fruit trees were taken up, with balls of earth, where the soil was moist; and this operation was continued till they were in possession of one thousand and fifteen live plants, secured in seven hundred and seventy-four pots, thirty-nine tubs, and twenty-four boxes. To complete this cargo took them till the 3d of April, 1789; and Bligh sailed on the 4th, passing from Otaheite through the group of islands, and bidding adieu to the natives with whom he and his crew had been on the most friendly terms during their stay.

Hitherto there had been no perils to contend with but those of the sea; but when four and twenty days had elapsed, and they were, of course, far from any land, a new scene took place, which frustrated for a time the bounty of the government and the skill of the commander. Under the cloak of fidelity, a mutiny had been forming of a very determined and extensive nature; and so well had the mutineers disguised their intentions, that not one but those who were in the plot had the slightest suspicion of it.

The known bravery of Lieutenant Bligh made the mutineers afraid to attack him awake; and so, on the morning of the 28th of April, he was seized while asleep in his bed, by a band of armed traitors, and hurried upon deck in his shirt; and, on coming there he found the master, the gunner, one of the master's mates, and Nelson the botanist, who had been with him under Cook, confined in the fore hatchway, and guarded by sentinels. The launch was hoisted; and such individuals as the mutineers did not like, were ordered to quit the ship, and forced if they refused or hesitated.

Eighteen individuals out of the forty-six remained true to the commander; and one of them, Mr. Samuel, the clerk, contrived to save Mr. Bligh's commission and journals; but he failed in attempting to procure Bligh's surveys, drawings, and remarks during fifteen years, which were exceedingly valuable, and the time-keeper. Four of the men, who kept their allegiance, were detained by the mutineers contrary to their wishes. The cause of this singular mutiny, for which none of the usual motives could very well account, could not with certainty be known; but it was generally supposed that the instigator was Mr. Christian, one of the master's mates. Bligh himself says, in his most interesting account of this voyage and mutiny, "It will naturally be asked what could be the cause of this revolt? In answer, I can only conjecture that the mutineers had flattered themselves with the hope of a happier life among the Otaheitans than they could possibly enjoy in England."

Thus, after they had made certain of the successful termination of an enterprise which was looked upon with a great deal of interest, both in a scientific and an economical point of view, Bligh was disappointed—and he and his faithful, associates were sent adrift upon the wide ocean, in an open boat, with only an hundred and fifty pounds of bread, a few pieces of pork, a little wine and rum, a quadrant and compass, and a few other implements of navigation. But they were undaunted, and they were skilful; and though they had hard weather to contend with, they reached Tofoa, one of the Friendly Islands. But as the people there were as treacherous, though not quite so successful in their treachery, as their former shipmates, they again put to sea, and stood for New Holland, which they reached in safety; rested for a little, and got a supply of provisions. From New Holland they again sailed in the direction of the Eastern Archipelago; and, after suffering the greatest fatigue, being exposed to the full action and vicissitudes of the elements, and forced for some time to bear famine, they reached the Dutch settlement of Coupang, in the island of Timor, without the loss of one individual by disease; though they had traversed

at least five thousand miles of sea. Nay, so ardent was Bligh as a seaman, that, amid all those perils, he was occupied in making some very valuable observations.

The Dutch governor of Coupang showed them every attention; and, from the care that was taken of them, twelve were enabled to return to England. Though the adventure had failed, every body was disposed to bestow all praise on the adventurer; and he was promoted to the rank of captain, and appointed to the command of his Majesty's ship Providence, in order to repeat the voyage.

The Providence, with the Assistant, a small ship in company, sailed on the 3d of August, 1791. His instructions were to procure the bread-fruit trees for the West Indies, and, on his return, to examine the passage between the north of New Holland and New Guinea—which, in his former voyage in the Bounty, he had been the first to navigate.

On the 9th of April, 1792, they reached Otaheite; and by the 17th of July, they were ready to leave the island, having on board twelve hundred and eighty-one tubs and pots of plants, all in the finest condition. There was no mutiny on this voyage; but the passage between New Holland and New Guinea was dangerous; and it was the 2d of October before the captain reached his old friends at Coupang. He remained there for a week, replacing with plants from that island those that had died on the voyage; and then he came to the Atlantic by the Cape of Good Hope, which he contrived to pass so closely as never to have a lower temperature than sixty-one degrees of Fahrenheit.

On the 17th of September, he anchored at St. Helena, collected there a number of trees, and among others the akee; and, leaving twenty-three bread fruits, and some other valuable plants, he sailed, and reached St. Vincent on the 23d of January, 1793—where he left, with Dr. Anderson, the superintendent of the Botanical Garden, three hundred and thirty three bread fruit trees, and two hundred and eleven fruit trees of other kinds, receiving at the same time nearly five hundred tropical plants for the Botanical Garden at

Kew. From St. Vincent, Captain Bligh sailed for Jamaica, where he left three hundred and forty-seven bread-fruits, and two hundred and seventy-six others, which were a selection of all the finest fruits of the east. Some of the plants were also left on the island of Grand Cayman; and the ships finally came to the Downs on the 2d of August, 1793.

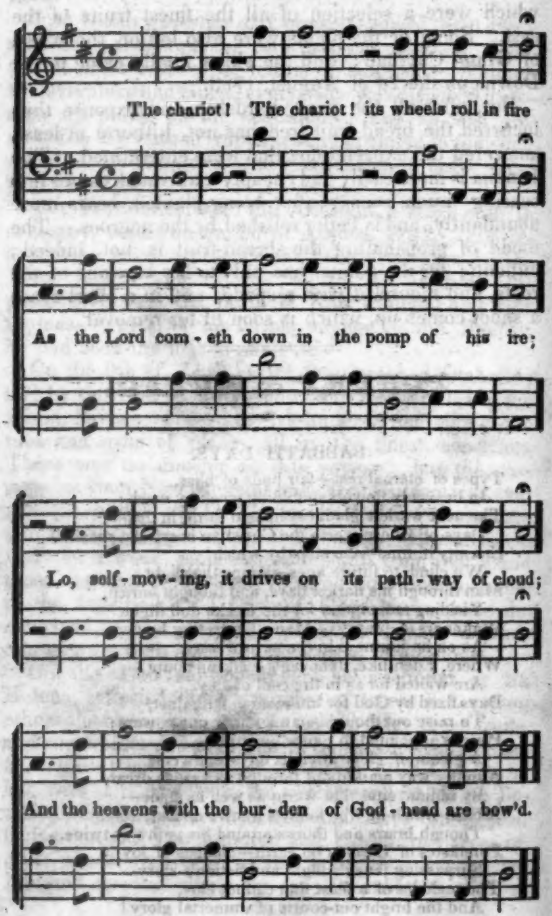
But, after all the peril, hardship, and expense thus incurred the bread-fruit tree has not, hitherto at least, answered the expectations that were entertained. The banana is more easily and cheaply cultivated, comes into bearing much sooner after being planted, bears more abundantly, and is better relished by the negroes. The mode of propagating the bread-fruit is not, indeed; difficult; for the planter has only to lay bare one of the roots, and mound it with a spade, and in a short space a shoot comes up, which is soon fit for removal

POETRY & MUSIC.

SABBATH DAYS.

Types of eternal rest—fair buds of bliss,
  In heavenly flowers unfolding week by week;
The next world's gladness imag'd forth, in this—
  Days of whose worth the Christian heart can speak.
Eternity in time—the steps by which
  We climb to future ages—lamps that light
Man through his darker days, and thought enrich,
  Yielding redemption for the weeks dull flight.
Wakeners of prayer in Man—his resting bowers
  As on he journeys in the narrow way,
Where, Eden-like, Jehovah's walking hours
  Are waited for as in the cool of day.
Days fixed by God for intercourse with dust,
  To raise our thoughts, and, purify our powers;
Periods appointed to renew our trust—
  A gleam of glory after six days' showers!
A milky way mark'd out through skies else drear,
  By radiant suns that warm as well as shine—
A clue, which he who follows knows no fear,
  Though briars and thorns around his pathway twine.
Foretastes of Heaven on earth—pledges of joy
  Surpassing fancy's flight and fiction's story—
The preludes of a feast that cannot cloy,
  And the bright out-courts of immortal glory!

THE TRUMPET, 12s.



THE CHARIOT.

The chariot! the chariot! its wheels roll in fire,
As the Lord cometh down in the pomp of his ire;
Lo, self-moving it drives on its pathway of cloud,
And the heavens with the burden of Godhead are bow'd.

The glory! the glory! around him are pour'd,
Mighty hosts of the angels that wait on the Lord;
And the glorified saints, and the martyrs are there,
And there all who the palm-wreaths of victory wear!

The trumpet! the trumpet! the dead have all heard;
Lo, the depths of the stone-cover'd charnel are stirr'd!
From sea, from the earth, from the south, from the north,
All the vast generations of man are come forth!

The judgment! the judgment! the thrones are all set,
Where the Lamb and the white-vested elders are met!
There all flesh is at once in the sight of the Lord,
And the doom of eternity hangs on his word.

O mercy! O mercy! look down from above,
Great Creator, on us, thy sad children, with love?
When beneath to their darkness the wicked are driven,
May our justified souls find a welcome in heaven!

MORNING THOUGHTS.

'Tis morning, and the day before me spreads,
In soft and tranquil beauty. The bright sun
His earliest smile upon my casement sheds,
As if to call me forth, with him, to run
The glorious race of duty. I've begun,
But know not if with him the day I close.
Some day must be my last! and oh! what one!
It matters not to me. My soul foregoes
All wishes, save that conscience feel a pure repose.

But such repose, ah! how can I enjoy,
Unless my heart glow with that holy love,
Which prompts the burning seraph to employ
His glorious powers in yon bright world above,
In the blest service of the God of Love?
O may my spirit kindle into flame!—
Wise as the serpent, harmless as the dove,
Be my pure fervor for my Saviour's name;
O that my love might answer His endearing claim!

That, that will never be upon this earth!
Where Imperfection holds lamented sway;
Where but in part we know His sacred worth:

Where fierce Temptation hovers o'er his prey:
Pierced with a thousand wounds from day to day,
My soul had perish'd, but the balmy blood
Of Calvary was applied. I hold no play
Henceforth with sin. Along the heavenly road,
Radiant with Thine own steps, I follow Thee, my God!

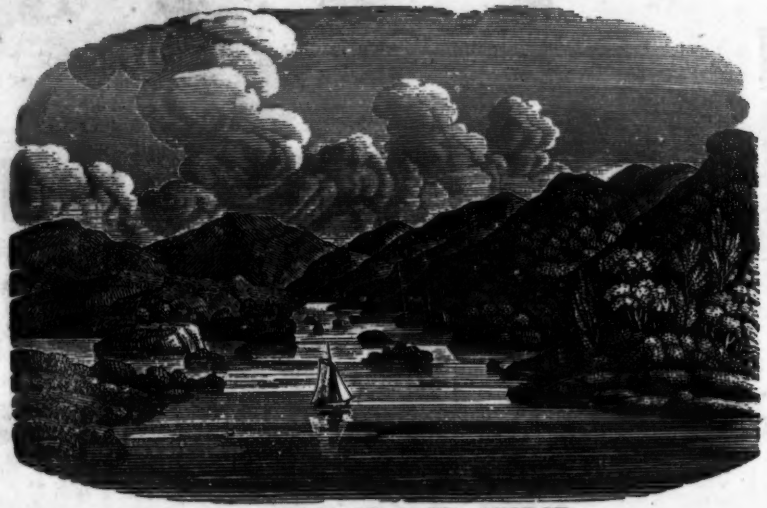
THERE IS A VOICE.

The sun is up—the flowering spring
Has gone abroad upon the earth,
And birds are out upon the wing,
To greet the joyous season's birth—
Yet there's a voice in every hour,
In every plant, in every flower—
I hear it still by night and day,
It bids me rise, and haste away.
Yon beauteous sun will swiftly set—
The Spring will fly—the flowers decay—
The birds their minstrelsy, forget—
And I shall be as mute as they—
There is a voice in waning years,
There is a voice in memory's tears—
I count my warnings one by one,
Time hastens, and I must be gone.

ONCE 'TWAS MY HOPE.

BY T. H. BAYLY.

Once 'twas my hope, upon this spot
A tender flower to raise;
I thought its bloom would be my pride
Through many summer days;
But ere the sunbeam's smile had lured
Its perfect fragrance forth,
Its soft leaves severed from the stem
Lay trampled on the earth.
I sorrowed all the winter time,
And bitter tears I shed;
When spring returned it found me still
A mourner o'er the dead:
But soon I saw the plant arise,
And spurn its earthly tomb,
More beautiful than when I nursed
Its infancy of bloom
That lesson in my memory
I'll treasure up with care;
I will not sorrow for the dead
With impious, mad despair;
I know hereafter they'll shake off
This perishable earth,
And boast an immortality
Of beauty and of worth!



VIEW OF LAKE GEORGE.